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## *Existence and uniqueness for diffusion processes*

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### 1.1 Stochastic processes and filtrations

Let  $(Y, \mathcal{M}, P)$  be a probability space and denote points in  $Y$  by  $q$ . A Borel measurable function  $\eta: Y \rightarrow R^d$  is called an  $R^d$ -valued random variable on  $(Y, \mathcal{M})$ . The expectation  $E\eta$  of  $\eta$  with respect to the probability measure  $P$  is defined by  $E\eta = \int_Y \eta dP$ . The  $R^d$ -valued random variable  $\eta$  on  $(Y, \mathcal{M}, P)$  induces a probability measure  $\nu$  on  $R^d$  defined by  $\nu(B) = P(\eta \in B)$ , for  $B \in \mathcal{B}_d$ , where  $\mathcal{B}_d$  is the Borel  $\sigma$ -algebra on  $R^d$ ;  $\nu$  is called the *distribution* of  $\eta$ .

A family  $\mathcal{M}_t$ ,  $t \geq 0$ , of  $\sigma$ -algebras satisfying  $\mathcal{M}_{t_1} \subseteq \mathcal{M}_{t_2}$  for  $t_1 \leq t_2$  and  $\mathcal{M}_t \subseteq \mathcal{M}$  for all  $t \geq 0$  is called a *filtration* on  $(Y, \mathcal{M})$ . If for all  $t \geq 0$ ,  $\mathcal{M}_t$  includes all sets of  $P$ -measure zero, the filtration is called *complete* on  $(Y, \mathcal{M}, P)$ . If  $\mathcal{M}'_t$  is the smallest  $\sigma$ -algebra containing  $\mathcal{M}_t$  and all sets of  $P$ -measure zero, then  $\mathcal{M}'_t$  is called the *completion* of  $\mathcal{M}_t$ .

A measurable map  $\zeta: [0, \infty) \times Y \rightarrow R^d$  is called an  $R^d$ -valued *stochastic process* on  $(Y, \mathcal{M}, P)$ . We frequently suppress the variable  $q \in Y$  and write  $\zeta(t)$  for  $\zeta(t, q)$ . The stochastic process  $\zeta(t)$  on  $(Y, \mathcal{M}, P)$  induces a probability measure  $\nu$  on  $\mathcal{B}([0, \infty), R^d)$ , the space of measurable functions from  $[0, \infty)$  to  $R^d$  with the sup-norm topology, defined by  $\nu(B) = P(\zeta(\cdot) \in B)$ , for Borel sets  $B$  in  $\mathcal{B}([0, \infty), R^d)$ . The measure  $\nu$  is called the *distribution* of  $\zeta(\cdot)$ . The distribution  $\nu$  is uniquely determined by the finite-dimensional distributions of  $\zeta(t)$ , that is, by the distributions of  $(\zeta(t_1), \zeta(t_2), \dots, \zeta(t_n))$ , for all  $0 \leq t_1 < t_2 < \dots < t_n$  and all  $n \geq 1$ . If  $\zeta(t)$  and  $\hat{\zeta}(t)$  are two stochastic processes on  $(Y, \mathcal{M}, P)$  and  $P(\zeta(t) = \hat{\zeta}(t)) = 1$  for each  $t \geq 0$ , then, using a monotone class theorem, it is not difficult to show that  $\zeta(\cdot)$  and  $\hat{\zeta}(\cdot)$  possess a common distribution on  $\mathcal{B}([0, \infty), R^d)$ ; the stochastic processes  $\zeta(t)$  and  $\hat{\zeta}(t)$  are called *versions* of one another. The stochastic process  $\zeta(t)$  is called *progressively measurable* with respect to  $\mathcal{M}_t$  if  $\zeta(t)$  is  $\mathcal{M}_t$ -measurable for each  $t \geq 0$ .

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### 1.2 Conditional expectation, martingales and stopping times

If  $\mathcal{Q} \subset \mathcal{M}$  is itself a  $\sigma$ -algebra and  $\eta$  is a random variable satisfying  $E|\eta| < \infty$ , then the conditional expectation  $E(\eta|\mathcal{Q})$  of  $\eta$  given  $\mathcal{Q}$  is defined by the following two conditions:

- (i)  $E(\eta|\mathcal{Q})$  is  $\mathcal{Q}$ -measurable;
- (ii)  $\int_A \eta dP = \int_A E(\eta|\mathcal{Q}) dP$ , for all  $A \in \mathcal{Q}$ .

A direct application of the Radon–Nikodym theorem shows that the conditional expectation exists and is unique up to sets of  $P$ -measure zero. The basic properties of the conditional expectation are as follows:

1.  $E(E(\eta|\mathcal{Q})) = E\eta$ .
2.  $E(\eta_1 + \eta_2|\mathcal{Q}) = E(\eta_1|\mathcal{Q}) + E(\eta_2|\mathcal{Q})$ .
3. If  $\eta \geq 0$ , then  $E(\eta|\mathcal{Q}) \geq 0$ .
4.  $|E(\eta|\mathcal{Q})| \leq E(|\eta|\mathcal{Q})$ .
5.  $E(\eta|\mathcal{Q}) = \eta$  if  $\eta$  is  $\mathcal{Q}$  measurable.
6.  $E(\eta|\mathcal{Q}) = E\eta$  if  $\eta$  is independent of  $\mathcal{Q}$ , that is, if  $P(\{\eta \in B\} \cap A) = P(\eta \in B)P(A)$  for all  $B \in \mathcal{B}_d$  and  $A \in \mathcal{Q}$ .
7.  $E(\eta_1\eta_2|\mathcal{Q}) = \eta_1 E(\eta_2|\mathcal{Q})$  if  $\eta_1$  is  $\mathcal{Q}$ -measurable.
8. (Bounded convergence theorem for conditional expectation) If  $\{\eta_j\}_{j=1}^\infty$  is bounded and  $\eta = \lim_{j \rightarrow \infty} \eta_j$  a.s., then  $E(\eta|\mathcal{Q}) = \lim_{j \rightarrow \infty} E(\eta_j|\mathcal{Q})$ .
9. (Dominated convergence theorem for conditional expectation) If  $\eta = \lim_{j \rightarrow \infty} \eta_j$  a.s. and  $|\eta_j| \leq Z$  for all  $j = 1, 2, \dots$ , where  $EZ < \infty$ , then  $E(\eta|\mathcal{Q}) = \lim_{j \rightarrow \infty} E(\eta_j|\mathcal{Q})$ .
10. (Jensen's inequality for conditional expectation) If  $\phi$  is convex and  $E|\phi(\eta)| < \infty$ , then  $\phi(E(\eta|\mathcal{Q})) \leq E(\phi(\eta)|\mathcal{Q})$ .

Of course, all the equalities and inequalities given above are to be taken in the  $P$ -almost sure sense.

For  $B \in \mathcal{B}_d$ , let  $I_B$  denote the characteristic function of the set  $B$ , that is,

$$I_B(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } x \in B \\ 0, & \text{if } x \notin B \end{cases}$$

We will usually denote  $E(I_B(\eta)|\mathcal{Q})$  by  $P(\eta \in B|\mathcal{Q})$ . If  $Z$  is a random variable, we define the  $\sigma$ -algebra generated by  $Z$  as the smallest  $\sigma$ -algebra on  $Y$  which contains all sets of the form  $\{Z \in B\}$  for  $B \in \mathcal{B}_d$ . This  $\sigma$ -algebra is denoted by  $\sigma(Z)$ . We will denote  $E(\eta|\sigma(Z))$  and  $P(\eta \in B|\sigma(Z))$  by  $E(\eta|Z)$  and  $P(\eta \in B|Z)$  respectively.

A real-valued progressively measurable stochastic process  $\zeta(t)$  is called a *martingale* with respect to  $(Y, \mathcal{M}, \mathcal{M}_t, P)$  if  $E|\zeta(t)| < \infty$ , for

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all  $t \geq 0$ , and  $E(\zeta(t)|\mathcal{M}_s) = \zeta(s)$ , for all  $0 \leq s < t < \infty$ . It is called a *submartingale* (*supermartingale*) with respect to  $(Y, \mathcal{M}, \mathcal{M}_t, P)$  if  $E|\zeta(t)| < \infty$ , for all  $t \geq 0$ , and  $E(\zeta(t)|\mathcal{M}_s) \geq \zeta(s)$  ( $E(\zeta(t)|\mathcal{M}_s) \leq \zeta(s)$ ), for all  $0 \leq s < t < \infty$ .

An extended real-valued non-negative random variable  $\tau: Y \rightarrow [0, \infty]$  is called a *stopping time* with respect to  $\mathcal{M}_t$  (or an  $\mathcal{M}_t$ -stopping time) if  $\{\tau \leq t\} \in \mathcal{M}_t$ , for all  $t \geq 0$ . The following paragraph gives a summary of the basic properties of stopping times.

The  $\sigma$ -algebra 'up to time  $\tau$ ' is defined by  $\mathcal{M}_\tau = \{A \in \mathcal{M}: A \cap \{\tau \leq t\} \in \mathcal{M}_t \text{ for all } t \geq 0\}$ . Of course, one must verify that  $\mathcal{M}_\tau$  as defined is in fact a  $\sigma$ -algebra. If  $\tau \equiv t$ , then  $\mathcal{M}_\tau$  reduces to  $\mathcal{M}_t$ . Furthermore, if  $\sigma \leq \tau$  are two stopping times, then  $\mathcal{M}_\sigma \subseteq \mathcal{M}_\tau$ . Thus, the notation  $\mathcal{M}_\tau$  and its designation as the  $\sigma$ -algebra 'up to time  $\tau$ ' are appropriate. If  $\sigma$  and  $\tau$  are two stopping times, then  $\sigma \wedge \tau$  is also a stopping time. Every stopping time  $\tau$  is  $\mathcal{M}_\tau$ -measurable. If  $\zeta(t)$  is progressively measurable with respect to  $\mathcal{M}_t$  and  $\tau$  is finite-valued, then  $\zeta(\tau)$  is  $\mathcal{M}_\tau$ -measurable.

The principal connection between stopping times and martingales is contained in *Doob's optional sampling theorem*. A version of that theorem which is appropriate for our needs is as follows:

**Theorem 2.1 (Doob's optional sampling theorem).** *Let  $\zeta(t)$  be a martingale (submartingale, supermartingale) and let  $\tau$  be a stopping time with respect to  $(Y, \mathcal{M}, \mathcal{M}_t, P)$ . Then  $Z(t) \equiv \zeta(t \wedge \tau)$  is also a martingale (submartingale, supermartingale) with respect to  $(Y, \mathcal{M}, \mathcal{M}_t, P)$ .*

The following two martingale inequalities will be useful in the sequel:

**Theorem 2.2.** *If  $\zeta(t)$  is a right continuous submartingale, then*

$$P\left(\sup_{0 \leq s \leq t} \zeta(s) \geq \lambda\right) \leq \frac{1}{\lambda} E \zeta^+(t),$$

for all  $\lambda > 0$  and  $t > 0$ , where  $\zeta^+(t) = \zeta(t) \vee 0$ .

**Theorem 2.3.** *If  $\zeta(t)$  is a right continuous martingale or a non-negative, right continuous submartingale, then for any  $\alpha > 1$ ,*

$$E\left[\sup_{0 \leq s \leq t} |\zeta(s)|^\alpha\right] \leq \left(\frac{\alpha}{\alpha - 1}\right)^\alpha E|\zeta(t)|^\alpha.$$

In Chapter 9 we will need the *martingale convergence theorem*.

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**Theorem 2.4.** *Let  $\zeta(t)$  be a submartingale with respect to  $(Y, \mathcal{M}, \mathcal{M}_t, P)$ . Assume that  $E|\zeta(t)|$  is bounded in  $t$ . Then  $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \zeta(t)$  exists a.s.*

**1.3 Markov processes and semigroups**

An  $R^d$ -valued stochastic process  $\zeta(t)$  on  $(Y, \mathcal{M}, \mathcal{M}_t, P)$  which satisfies  $P(\zeta(t) \in B | \mathcal{M}_s) = P(\zeta(t) \in B | \zeta(s))$  for  $0 \leq s < t < \infty$  and  $B \in \mathcal{B}_d$  is called an  $R^d$ -valued *Markov process* on  $(Y, \mathcal{M}, \mathcal{M}_t, P)$ . Suppose that for each  $0 \leq s < t$  and each  $x \in R^d$  there exists a probability measure  $p(s, x, t, dy)$  on  $R^d$  satisfying

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \text{(i)} \quad & p(s, x, t, B) \text{ is measurable as a function of } x \text{ for each } 0 \leq s < t \\ & \text{and } B \in \mathcal{B}_d; \\ \text{(ii)} \quad & p(s, x, t, B) = \int_{R^d} p(s, x, u, dy) p(u, y, t, B) \text{ for all } s < u < t \\ & \text{and all } B \in \mathcal{B}_d. \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (3.1)$$

Condition (ii) in (3.1) is known as the *Chapman–Kolmogorov equation*. Suppose, further, that  $P(\zeta(t) \in B | \mathcal{M}_s) = P(\zeta(t) \in B | \zeta(s)) = p(s, \zeta(s), t, B)$  for all  $0 \leq s < t$  and all  $B \in \mathcal{B}_d$ . Then  $p(s, x, t, dy)$  is called the *transition probability function* for the Markov process  $\zeta(t)$ . A Markov process with a transition probability function  $p(s, x, t, dy)$  actually satisfies the following condition:

$$\begin{aligned} P(\zeta(t + \cdot) \in B | \mathcal{M}_t) &= P(\zeta(t + \cdot) \in B | \zeta(t)), \text{ for } t \geq 0 \\ \text{and Borel sets } B &\text{ in } \mathcal{B}([0, \infty), R^d). \end{aligned} \quad (3.2)$$

The proof is left as exercise (1.2).

In the special case that  $p(s, x, t, dy) = p(0, x, t - s, dy)$ , for all  $0 \leq s < t$  and all  $x \in R^d$ , we will use the notation  $p(t, x, dy) = p(s, x, s + t, dy)$ . In this case,  $P(\zeta(t) \in B | \mathcal{M}_s) = p(t - s, \zeta(s), B)$  depends only on the position of the process  $\zeta(s)$  and on the difference  $t - s$ . Such a Markov process is called *time-homogeneous*. All the Markov processes we consider in this book will be time-homogeneous.

Given a time-homogeneous transition probability function  $p(t, x, dy)$ , the Kolmogorov construction (see, for example, [Breiman (1968) or (1992)]) guarantees the existence of a measurable space  $(Y, \mathcal{M})$  with filtration  $\mathcal{M}_t$  and a progressively measurable stochastic process  $\zeta(t): [0, \infty) \times Y \rightarrow R^d$  such that for each probability measure  $\mu$  on  $R^d$ , there exists a probability measure  $P_\mu$  on  $(Y, \mathcal{M})$  satisfying

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(i)} \quad & P_\mu(\zeta(0) \in B) = \mu(B) \text{ for } B \in \mathcal{B}_d; \\ \text{(ii)} \quad & P_\mu(\zeta(t) \in B | \mathcal{M}_s) = p(t - s, \zeta(s), B), \text{ for } 0 \leq s < t \text{ and } B \in \mathcal{B}_d. \end{aligned}$$

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The process  $\zeta(t)$  is then a Markov process on  $(Y, \mathcal{M}, \mathcal{M}_t, P_\mu)$ . Its distribution is uniquely determined by the transition probability function  $p(t, x, dy)$  and the initial distribution  $\mu$ . In the special case where  $\mu = \delta_x$  is the atom at some  $x \in R^d$ , we use the notation  $P_x$ . Of course,  $P_\mu = \int_{R^d} P_x \mu(dx)$ . The expectation corresponding to  $P_\mu$  is denoted by  $E_\mu$ .

Let  $\mathcal{B}_b(R^d)$  denote the space of real-valued bounded measurable functions on  $R^d$  and define the operator  $T_t: \mathcal{B}_b(R^d) \rightarrow \mathcal{B}_b(R^d)$  by

$$T_t f(x) = E_x f(\zeta(t)) = \int_{R^d} f(y) p(t, x, dy).$$

Since

$$\begin{aligned} T_{t+s} f(x) &= E_x f(\zeta(t+s)) = E_x(E_x f(\zeta(t+s)) | \mathcal{F}_t) \\ &= E_x E_x(f(\zeta(t+s)) | \zeta(t)) \\ &= E_x E_{\zeta(t)} f(\zeta(s)) \\ &= E_x \int_{R^d} f(y) p(s, \zeta(t), dy) \\ &= \int_{R^d} \int_{R^d} f(y) p(s, z, dy) p(t, x, dz), \end{aligned}$$

it follows from the Chapman–Kolmogorov equations that  $T_{t+s} = T_t T_s$  for  $0 \leq s < t$ ; therefore  $T_t$  defines a *semigroup*. Furthermore, letting  $\|\cdot\|$  denote the sup-norm on  $\mathcal{B}_b(R^d)$ , it is clear that  $T_t$  is a *contraction semigroup* on  $\mathcal{B}_b(R^d)$ , that is,  $\|T_t f\| \leq \|f\|$  for  $t \geq 0$ . (Additional material on semigroups may be found in Chapter 3, Section 3.4 and in exercise 3.3.)

A Markov process  $\zeta(t)$  on  $(Y, \mathcal{M}, \mathcal{M}_t, P)$  with transition probability function  $p(t, x, dy)$  is called a *strong Markov process* if  $P(\zeta(\tau+t) \in B | \mathcal{F}_\tau) = p(t, \zeta(\tau), B)$  on  $\{\tau < \infty\}$  for all  $t \geq 0$ , all  $B \in \mathcal{B}_d$  and all stopping times  $\tau$ . The Markov process is called a *Feller process* if its semigroup  $T_t$  leaves invariant  $C_b(R^d)$ , the space of bounded continuous functions on  $R^d$ . In other words,  $\zeta(t)$  is a Feller process if  $E_x f(\zeta(t))$  is continuous in  $x \in R^d$  for each  $t \geq 0$  and each  $f \in C_b(R^d)$ . Using the Markov property, it is not difficult to show that the Feller property is equivalent to the apparently stronger requirement that  $x \rightarrow E_x \Phi(\zeta(\cdot))$  be continuous for all bounded continuous  $\Phi: \mathcal{B}([0, \infty), R^d) \rightarrow R$ . Thus, in terms of weak continuity of measures (see Chapter 7, Section 3), the Feller property may be defined as the weak continuity of  $P_x$  as a function of  $x$ . In fact, the Feller property can be shown to be equivalent to a yet stronger condition as follows.

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**Theorem 3.1.** *If  $\zeta(t)$  is a Feller process, then  $x \rightarrow E_x \Phi(\zeta(\cdot))$  is continuous for each bounded  $\Phi: \mathcal{B}([0, \infty), R^d) \rightarrow R$  which is  $\nu$ -a.s. continuous, where  $\nu$  is the distribution of  $\zeta(t)$  on  $\mathcal{B}([0, \infty), R^d)$ .*

**1.4 Brownian motion**

Consider the transition probability function on  $R^d$  defined by  $p(t, x, dy) = p(t, x, y) dy$  with

$$p(t, x, y) = (2\pi t)^{-d/2} \exp\left(\frac{-|x - y|^2}{2t}\right).$$

Then for  $t > 0$  and  $x \in R^d$ ,  $p(t, x, y)$  is the  $d$ -dimensional joint Gaussian density with mean zero and covariance  $tI$ . The Markov process with this transition probability function and initial distribution  $\mu$  is called a  $d$ -dimensional *Brownian motion* with initial distribution  $\mu$ . We will denote this process on  $(Y, \mathcal{M}, \mathcal{M}_t, P)$  by  $B(t) = B(t, q)$ . (We suppress the dependence on  $\mu$ .) An equivalent definition of Brownian motion with initial distribution  $\mu$  is this:

$B(t)$  is a Markov process on  $(Y, \mathcal{M}, \mathcal{M}_t, P)$  satisfying the following three conditions:

- (i)  $B(0)$  has distribution  $\mu$ .
  - (ii)  $B(t) - B(s)$  and  $B(s)$  are independent for  $0 \leq s < t < \infty$ .
  - (iii)  $B(t) - B(s)$  has the joint Gaussian distribution with mean zero and covariance  $(t - s)I$ .
- (4.1)

As previously noted, any  $R^d$ -valued stochastic process induces a measure on  $\mathcal{B}([0, \infty), R^d)$  which is called the distribution of the process. We want to show that the distribution of Brownian motion is in fact supported on  $C([0, \infty), R^d)$ , the space of continuous functions from  $[0, \infty)$  to  $R^d$ . One must be a bit careful because  $C([0, \infty), R^d)$  is not a Borel-measurable subset of  $\mathcal{B}([0, \infty), R^d)$ . There are many ways to proceed, one of which is as follows. Denote elements of  $\mathcal{B}([0, \infty), R^d)$  by  $\omega$ . Let  $\{t_k\}_{k=1}^\infty$  be a dense, countable set in  $[0, \infty)$  and consider the Borel measurable set

$$\mathcal{U} = \{\omega \in \mathcal{B}([0, \infty), R^d) : \omega \text{ is uniformly continuous on } \{t_k\}_{k=1}^\infty\}.$$

One can show that the distribution  $\nu$  of the Brownian motion satisfies  $\nu(\mathcal{U}) = 1$ . From this it is easy to show that there exists a continuous version of the Brownian motion. See [Freiman (1968) or (1992)] for a particularly simple derivation or, for example, [Karatzas and Shreve (1988)], where the proof of continuity actually reveals that almost

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every path is Hölder continuous with exponent  $\gamma$  for any  $\gamma < \frac{1}{2}$ . We shall always assume that our Brownian motions are continuous. The probability measure on  $C([0, \infty), R^d)$  corresponding to Brownian motion in the case where the initial distribution  $\mu$  is the atom at  $x = 0$  is called the ( $d$ -dimensional) *Wiener measure*.

Brownian motion is a Feller process and a strong Markov process (exercises 1.3 and 1.4).

We note the following simple lemma, which will be required in Section 7.

**Lemma 4.1.** *Let  $B(t)$  be a Brownian motion on  $(Y, \mathcal{M}, \mathcal{M}_t, P)$ . Then for each  $t \geq 0$ , the  $\sigma$ -algebras  $\mathcal{M}_t$  and  $\sigma(B(s) - B(t); s \geq t)$  are independent.*

*Proof.* By appealing to a standard monotone class theorem, it is enough to show that  $P(D|\mathcal{M}_t) = P(D)$ , for  $D$  of the form  $D = \{(B(s_j) - B(t)) \in A_j, j = 1, 2, \dots, n\}$ , where  $t < s_1 < s_2 < \dots < s_n$  and  $A_j \in \mathcal{B}_d, j = 1, 2, \dots, n$ . Using the Markov property and the fact that  $B(t)$  is independent of  $B(s) - B(t)$ , for  $s \geq t$ , we have  $P(D|\mathcal{M}_t) = P(D|B(t)) = P(D)$ .  $\square$

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Let  $B(t)$  be a  $d$ -dimensional Brownian motion on  $(Y, \mathcal{M}, \mathcal{M}_t, P)$ . For  $\theta \in R^d$ , define

$$e_\theta(x) = \exp(i\langle \theta, x \rangle), \quad x \in R^d.$$

By property (ii) of (4.1), properties (6) and (7) of the conditional expectation, and the Markov property, we have for  $0 \leq t_1 < t_2$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} E(e_\theta(B(t_2))|\mathcal{M}_{t_1}) &= E(\exp(i\langle \theta, B(t_1) + (B(t_2) - B(t_1)) \rangle)|\mathcal{M}_{t_1}) \\ &= e_\theta(B(t_1))E(e_\theta(B(t_2) - B(t_1))|\mathcal{M}_{t_1}) \\ &= e_\theta(B(t_1))E(e_\theta(B(t_2) - B(t_1))|B(t_1)) \\ &= e_\theta(B(t_1))Ee_\theta(B(t_2) - B(t_1)). \end{aligned}$$

By property (iii) of (4.1),

$$Ee_\theta(B(t_2) - B(t_1)) = \exp\left(\frac{-|\theta|^2}{2}(t_2 - t_1)\right).$$

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We conclude that

$$E(e_\theta(B(t_2)) | \mathcal{M}_{t_1}) = e_\theta(B(t_1)) \exp\left(\frac{-|\theta|^2}{2}(t_2 - t_1)\right),$$

$$0 \leq t_1 < t_2, \theta \in R^d. \quad (5.1)$$

Note that (5.1) uniquely determines the distribution of the process  $B(t)$  up to its initial distribution (exercise 1.5). Another way of stating (5.1) is that  $X_{i\theta}(t)$  is a martingale relative to  $(Y, \mathcal{M}, \mathcal{M}_t, P)$  for all  $\theta \in R^d$ , where  $X_{i\theta}(t) = \exp(i\langle \theta, B(t) - B(0) \rangle + \frac{1}{2}|\theta|^2 t)$ .

Now, from (5.1), we have

$$\frac{d}{dt} E(e_\theta(B(t)) | \mathcal{M}_{t_1}) = \frac{-|\theta|^2}{2} e_\theta(B(t_1)) \exp\left(\frac{-|\theta|^2}{2}(t - t_1)\right),$$

for  $0 \leq t_1 < t$ .

Thus, for  $t_2 > t_1$ ,

$$E(e_\theta(B(t_2)) - e_\theta(B(t_1)) | \mathcal{M}_{t_1})$$

$$= \frac{-|\theta|^2}{2} \int_{t_1}^{t_2} e_\theta(B(t_1)) \exp\left(\frac{-|\theta|^2}{2}(t - t_1)\right) dt$$

$$= \frac{-|\theta|^2}{2} \int_{t_1}^{t_2} E(e_\theta(B(t)) | \mathcal{M}_{t_1}) dt$$

$$= E\left(\int_{t_1}^{t_2} \frac{1}{2} \Delta e_\theta(B(t)) dt | \mathcal{M}_{t_1}\right).$$

That is,

$$e_\theta(B(t)) - \int_0^t \frac{1}{2} \Delta e_\theta(B(s)) ds$$

is a martingale with respect to  $(Y, \mathcal{M}, \mathcal{M}_t, P)$ , for all  $\theta \in R^d$ . (5.2)

Since any  $f \in C_0^\infty(R^d)$  can be represented by

$$f(x) = \int_{-\infty}^\infty \exp(i\langle \theta, x \rangle) \phi(\theta) d\theta,$$

for some rapidly decreasing  $\phi$ , it follows easily from (5.2) and exercise 1.1, that

$$f(B(t)) - \int_0^t \frac{1}{2} \Delta f(B(s)) ds$$

is a martingale with respect to  $(Y, \mathcal{M}, \mathcal{M}_t, P)$ , for all  $f \in C_b^2(R^d)$ , (5.3)

where  $C_b^2(R^d)$  denotes the space of functions on  $R^d$ , all of whose partial derivatives up to order 2 are continuous and bounded. Conversely, starting with (5.3), one can obtain (5.1).



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Now let

$$\zeta(t) = \sigma B(t) + bt, \tag{5.4}$$

where  $\sigma$  is a constant  $d \times d$  matrix and  $b$  is a constant  $d$ -vector. Letting  $a = \sigma\sigma^T$ , a calculation similar to the one just carried out reveals that

$$X_{i\theta}(t) \text{ is a martingale with respect to } (Y, \mathcal{M}, \mathcal{M}_t, P),$$

$$\text{where } X_{i\theta}(t) = \exp(i\langle \theta, \zeta(t) - \zeta(0) - bt \rangle + \frac{1}{2}\langle \theta, a\theta \rangle), \tag{5.5}$$

and that

$$f(\zeta(t)) - \int_0^t Lf(\zeta(s)) ds \text{ is a martingale with respect to } (Y, \mathcal{M}, \mathcal{M}_t, P),$$

$$\text{for all } f \in C_b^2(R^d), \tag{5.6}$$

where

$$L = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^d a_{ij} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} + \sum_{i=1}^d b_i \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i}.$$

Furthermore, (5.5) and (5.6) are equivalent.

We now want to construct a Markov process  $\zeta(t)$  satisfying (5.6) in the case where

$$L = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^d a_{ij}(x) \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} + \sum_{i=1}^d b_i(x) \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i}$$

is a variable coefficient elliptic operator. In the light of (5.4), it is tempting to try to arrive at  $\zeta(t)$  by solving the ‘differential equation’

$$d\zeta(t) = \sigma(\zeta(t)) dB(t) + b(\zeta(t)) dt, \tag{5.7}$$

where  $\sigma\sigma^T(x) = a(x)$ . The problem with this is that  $B(t)$  is not of bounded variation; we must develop a suitable integration theory with respect to  $dB(t)$ .

It will actually be expedient to develop an integration theory with respect to processes more general than Brownian motion. To this end, let  $a: [0, \infty) \times Y \rightarrow S_d$  and  $b: [0, \infty) \times Y \rightarrow R^d$  be progressively measurable on  $(Y, \mathcal{M}, \mathcal{M}_t, P)$ , where  $S_d$  denotes the space of real symmetric non-negative definite  $d \times d$  matrices. Let

$$L_t = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^d a_{ij}(t, q) \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} + \sum_{i=1}^d b_i(t, q) \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i}. \tag{5.8}$$

The following theorem generalizes the equivalence of (5.5) and (5.6).

10 Existence and uniqueness for diffusion processes

**Theorem 5.1.** Let  $L_t$  satisfy (5.8) and assume that  $a_{ij}$  and  $b_i$  are bounded. Let  $\zeta(t) = \zeta(t, q)$  be an almost surely continuous process on  $(Y, \mathcal{M}, \mathcal{M}_t, P)$ .

- (a) The following four conditions are equivalent:  
 (i)  $X_\theta(t)$  is a martingale with respect to  $(Y, \mathcal{M}, \mathcal{M}_t, P)$  for all  $\theta \in R^d$ , where

$$X_\theta(t) = \exp\left(\left\langle \theta, \zeta(t) - \zeta(0) - \int_0^t b(s) ds \right\rangle - \frac{1}{2} \int_0^t \langle \theta, a(s)\theta \rangle ds\right);$$

- (ii)  $X_{i\theta}(t)$  is a martingale with respect to  $(Y, \mathcal{M}, \mathcal{M}_t, P)$  for all  $\theta \in R^d$ , where

$$X_{i\theta}(t) = \exp\left(i \left\langle \theta, \zeta(t) - \zeta(0) - \int_0^t b(s) ds \right\rangle + \frac{1}{2} \int_0^t \langle \theta, a(s)\theta \rangle ds\right);$$

- (iii)  $f(\zeta(t)) - \int_0^t (L_s f)(\zeta(s)) ds$  is a martingale with respect to  $(Y, \mathcal{M}, \mathcal{M}_t, P)$  for all  $f \in C_b^2(R^d)$ ;

(iv) 
$$f(t, \zeta(t)) - \int_0^t \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial s} + L_s \right) f(s, \zeta(s)) ds$$

is a martingale with respect to  $(Y, \mathcal{M}, \mathcal{M}_t, P)$  for all  $f \in C_b^{1,2}([0, \infty) \times R^d)$ .

- (b) If  $E \exp(\lambda|\zeta(0)|) < \infty$ , for all  $\lambda \in R$ , then  $E \exp(\lambda|\zeta(t)|) < \infty$ , for all  $\lambda \in R$  and all  $t \geq 0$ . In this case,  $f(t, \zeta(t)) - \int_0^t ((\partial/\partial s) + L_s)f(s, \zeta(s)) ds$  is a martingale for all  $f \in C^{1,2}([0, \infty) \times R^d)$  for which there exist constants  $c_t$  and  $k_t$  for each  $t > 0$  such that

$$\left| \frac{\partial^\alpha f}{\partial x^\alpha}(s, x) \right| \leq c_t \exp(k_t|x|) \text{ and } \left| \frac{\partial f}{\partial s}(s, x) \right| \leq c_t \exp(k_t|x|),$$

for all  $x \in R^d, 0 \leq s \leq t, t > 0$  and  $|\alpha| \leq 2$ .

In particular,

$$\left\langle \theta, \zeta(t) - \int_0^t b(s) ds \right\rangle \text{ is a martingale with respect to } (Y, \mathcal{M}, \mathcal{M}_t, P), \tag{5.9}$$

and

$$\left\langle \theta, \zeta(t) - \int_0^t b(s) ds \right\rangle^2 - \int_0^t \langle \theta, a(s)\theta \rangle ds \text{ is a martingale with respect to } (Y, \mathcal{M}, \mathcal{M}_t, P). \tag{5.10}$$

To prove the theorem, we need two results from Chapter 2, so we postpone the proof until Section 5 of Chapter 2.

If  $a_{ij}$  and  $b_i$  are bounded and  $\zeta(t)$  is an almost surely continuous process satisfying the equivalent conditions of Theorem 5.1, we will call  $\zeta(t)$  an *Itô process with covariance  $a$  and drift  $b$* . We will write  $\zeta(t) \sim I_d(a, b)$ .